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ABSTRACT

This paper explores the nature of the curriculum within learning communities, specifically, learning communities in leadership preparation programs. It also addresses how cohorts of learning communities operate effectively as cohesive groups, and how they, in turn, promote the enhancement of individuals. The process curriculum advocated in this paper consists of developing the individual, encouraging group interaction, focusing on reflection, and using adult development concepts and a constructivist approach to learning. The role of the instructor in the development of a cohort through such a process curriculum is also explored. Specific practices to develop learning communities that foster individual development might include efforts to enhance self-discovery, individual growth plans, educational platforms, portfolios, and student journals. Group interaction can be promoted through a variety of approaches related to cooperative learning activities, and there are many approaches to developing learning communities that would foster individual and community reflection. Theories of adult learning and development must serve as the foundation for the creation of learning communities in educational administration programs. Efforts to develop communities designed to meet the needs of adult learners should rely on a constructivist approach to learning and teaching. Using both a process curriculum (how to teach) and a content curriculum (what to teach) develops strong learning communities or cohorts of students. (Contains 43 references.) (SLD)

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Modeling Community through Cohort Development

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Introduction

Today's school leaders are expected to serve as catalysts for individual and organizational transformations. University administrator preparation programs need to respond to this view of leadership by redesigning preparation programs to serve as laboratories where curriculum is both process as well content driven. In such a laboratory, professors need to view classes as learning communities and model transformational leadership behavior as they engage students actively in problem-solving groups. The structure for this leadership preparation model already exists in the form of cohorts (Norris et al., 1996). More attention has been given to the efficiency benefits that cohorts or learning communities afford rather than to their possible curricular value. As educational administration programs prepare students for school leadership roles that increasingly call for collaborative, community-building expertise, it is feasible that the effective use of learning communities within the classroom could provide the content, as well as the learning processes for such development. In order to

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realize the instructional potential that exists within such learning communities, educational administration preparation programs should plan more deliberately and systematically for learning afforded through such settings (Norris, Barnett, Basom, & Yerkes, et al., in press).

Gardner (1989) reminds us that where community exists, it "confers on its members identity, a sense of belonging, and a measure of security"(p. 73). Today, those who seek community hope that it embodies the best of contemporary values, is inclusive, balances individual freedom and group obligation, fosters the release of human potential, and invites sharing and participation in leadership tasks. Characteristics of Gardner's community include incorporation of diversity, a shared culture, good communication, caring, trust, and teamwork. There also must be a spirit of mutuality and cooperation (Gardner, 1989). Can future leaders, through their own educational preparation, be inspired to become catalysts for future institution building? If so, what curricular processes might best provide this impetus? In other words, how can the process of developing a learning community lead, through modeling, to the delivery of effective leadership content?

In this paper we explore the nature of the curriculum within learning communities, specifically, learning communities in leadership preparation programs. We also address how cohorts or learning communities operate effectively as cohesive groups and how they in turn promote the enhancement of individuals. The process curriculum advocated in this paper consists of developing the individual, encouraging group interaction, focusing on reflection, and using adult development concepts and a constructivist approach to learnir The role of the instructor in the development of a cohort through such a process curriculum approach is also explored.

Teaching the Curriculum

Curriculum can be seen as having a dual purpose: 1) To present the content or knowledge base with which future leaders are expected to be conversant, and 2) To explore and inform the process of developing a learning community in an effort to promote the development of leadership skill and its transfer to new settings (Norris, et al., in press). Since the curriculum content side of leadership preparation is receiving considerable attention in many states and at the national level, this paper discusses the concept of "process curriculum" which is only beginning to receive its fair share of attention in higher education.

Educational Administration faculty have only begun to understand the potential of learning communities as vehicles for the development of transformational leaders. A variety of methods used to build community could directly and indirectly facilitate the development of such leaders. As we consider activities to further the process curriculum, we take note not only of how learning communities operate effectively as cohesive groups, but how they, in turn, promote the enhancement of individuals. Being a member of a developing learning community becomes the lesson.

Individual Development

In developing and maintaining learning communities, care must be taken to ensure that group processes assist individual members in realizing their potential. Henderson and Hawthorne (1995) use the term emancipatory constructivism to describe a curriculum approach that focuses on three types of liberation: personal, social, and transpersonal. In the personal liberation phase one must consider cultivation of the individual's "self-worth, identity, authenticity and self actualization during the learning process"(p. 5). Social liberation is concerned with problems of "equity, marginalization and oppression in society" (p. 6) while transpersonal is concerned with spiritual liberation, looking at "the ideals and the spiritual possibilities" (Huebner, 1993, p.6, cited in Henderson and Hawthorne, 1995) hidden behind forms and events.

Throughout the learning process, individuals must balance the realization of the community's purpose with the achievement and satisfaction of meeting personal goals (Yerkes, 1994). Drucker (1999) reminds us that knowledge workers of the future will have to know how to manage themselves and that can only be accomplished by answering questions about oneself such as: " Who am I? What are my strengths? How do I work? Where do I belong? What is my contribution?" (p. 164). Buckingham and Coffman (1999) encourage leaders to "use any feedback tools provided by the company to increase your understanding of who you are and how others perceive you" (p. 23). Kouzes and Posner (1987) draw a direct parallel between self-understanding and leadership. Self-understanding fosters a personal faith in one's capabilities, values, and convictions.

Practices

Specific practices in developing learning communities that would foster individual development might include:

Self discovery. The more community members understand themselves, "the more clearly they will understand and identify with their core beliefs, leadership styles and decision-making biases" (Milstein and Associate, 1993, p. 155). A variety of self-assessment instruments are used in developing the individual as a community member. Students can take inventories such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Gregoric Styles' assessment, the Leadership Profile Instrument (Kouzes and Posner, 1987), the KOLB learning Styles Inventory, Social Styles Communication Instrument, the FIRO-B, and/or McGregor's Diagnostic Inventory. Feedback from the National Association of Secondary School Principal's (NASSP) assessment process, modified versions of the NASSP's instrument, or the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) Administrative Diagnostic Inventory can also be used effectively to help students gain valuable information about their skills, interests, and abilities. This information will help them develop individual growth plans.

Individual Growth Plans. Once students have used a variety of assessment instruments to evaluate themselves, they are encouraged to

develop individual growth plans based on those assessment data. If the assessment feedback is received from others in their work situation, it also adds the dimension of reality for the students. Since perception may be reality to those led by the future leader, it behooves students to get as much feedback as possible before setting out to develop a growth plan based not only on what the student feels are personal strengths and weaknesses but on what their colleagues believe about them.

Platforms. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) introduced us to the concept that a series of assumptions or beliefs, attitudes, and values undergirds one's behavior as an educator. These assumptions written in statement form become a person's platform. Argyris and Schon (1974) refer to these statements as people's espoused theories of action, detailing the set of beliefs, values, and assumptions underlying their behavior. Such a belief system is a framework made up of layers of beliefs with those at the core being the most firmly held and the least likely to change (Rokeach, cited in Henderson & Hawthorne, 1995). Students are asked to develop platforms as they begin their leadership development program. In the platform, students identify non-negotiable (least likely to change) core values which are at the heart of who they are as moral leaders. All work, activities, and directions henceforth should constantly be assessed against this personal constitution. Over time one should be able to see these values manifested in the school led by these students.

Portfolios. Portfolios are used in many educational administration programs as a form of authentic assessment. The portfolio allows the student to provide documentation/proof of performance and contributions. Second, it allows for nearly unlimited flexibility and creativity. Documentation of performance and contributions can take many forms and numerous formats including that of computer disks, CD ROMs, videotapes, electronic presentations, and so forth. Third, portfolio-based assessment provides a solid data and information base that can be used by students as the takeoff point for continuous professional growth and development. Portfolios used in educational administration programs typically serve as assessment of student progress toward having met program outcomes or state standards for accreditation.

Apart from being used as an assessment tool for program purposes, the portfolio can serve the needs of individual students to 1) document continuous professional development; 2) reflect on past performances and conduct self assessments at any time; 3) identify professional growth goals and plan for learning opportunities or other jobs; 4) provide concrete documentation of leadership performance and leadership accomplishments. In other words, it provides students with an opportunity to reflect on their performance, job satisfaction, and life-purpose; and to choose consciously how to change course (Schwahn, 1998).

Journals. Journals help students learn about themselves, document their learning experiences, and keep the individual and group growth in perspective. "The most important reason to keep a journal is what you can learn about yourself from the exercise" (Peck, nd, p. 1). To learn from experiences we must think about the things we observe and then use these observations to learn more about ourselves. By writing in a journal we replay our roles in the events of the day. This exercise can serve as a tool to study our own behavior and emotions. Keeping a journal is especially beneficial for those who are not naturally curious or contemplative but also serves well those who are contemplative by providing an outlet to recall things learned (Peck, nd)

Group Interaction

When individuals within groups interact and become collaborative, groups develop into interdependent entities. Within such groups, individuals support each other, pool their resources, combine their efforts, and develop friendship bonds, rules, and rituals (Johnson & Johnson, 1987), forming the basis of a true learning community. The group needs to be guided in identifying concerns, gathering and analyzing data about its own beliefs and function, engaging in problem solving and action planning, and critically assessing the overt and covert meaning of its organizational life (Henderson and Hawthorne, 1995). In so doing, the group fully integrates human interaction skills, analytical and critical skills, and problem-solving skills. The culture in the learning community then develops a spiritual commitment that is expressed through a shared pedagogical covenant. At this point, "the quality of life within the community and the quality of doing curriculum become one" (Hawthorne and Henderson, 1995, p.98).

One characteristic of a learning community is the cohesiveness of social interactions among community members. Social interaction is an important component of human beings' genetic makeup (Brilhart and Galanes, 1992). Community members' attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions are likely to be influenced by their social interactions. Members want to influence the activities and topics of discussion, participate in the decision-making process, develop goals, and evaluate outcomes for their community. Adults also learn best when they can direct their own learning, influence the decision-making process, focus on relevant problems of practice, tap their rich experiential background, and build strong relationships and affiliations with their peers (Merriam and Caffarella, 1991). When such activities take place in a climate of mutual support and respect, collegial sharing that enhances ownership in community purpose develops. "Democracy is not simply a theory of self-interest that gives people license to pursue their own goals at the expense of others; the common good is a central feature of democracy" (Apple and Beane, 1995 p. 10-11).

Practices

Specific practices in developing learning communities that foster individual and group interaction could include the following:

Size of the group. Group interaction is influenced, by the size of the group as well as the frequency and intensity of group interactions. Frequent interaction promotes positive involvement and accountability among members in accomplishment of group tasks (Johnson, & Johnson, 1987). Educational leadership cohorts or learning communities typically range from 10 to 30 students. Most programs prefer to limit the size to 25 participants, which allows students to develop closer relationships with their peers and faculty and to attend to the

needs of individual students.

Trust Building Activities. Early interactions among students

Allow them to share their values, beliefs, and expectations for joining the group. Some program faculty purposely structure initial activities to help stimulate meaningful social interactions. For instance, residential retreats are excellent settings for initiating a preparation program because students are allowed to engage in intense discussions about their values, aspirations, and expectations prior to beginning the formal preparation program. Other less costly and time-consuming activities include participating in outdoor education programs such as "ropes courses," where students engage in team-building activities that can only be successfully completed with physical and emotional support from community members. These activities encourage students to understand and appreciate their colleagues' attitudes, skills, and aspirations so that a strong foundation of trust, upon which future social interactions can be built, is established early on (Barnett & Muse, 1993). These activities also build the strong collegial bonds that encourage long-term personal and professional networks.

Social Gatherings. Opportunities for students to meet over dinner; commute together; plan group meals; organize social events with group facilitators; and conduct celebrations of personal milestones, completion of classes, and graduation are activities that will also provide for the development of social interactions within the learning community.

Common Purpose. Learning communities by their nature are diverse, and this diversity is prized. At the same time, a community needs to have a sense of shared purpose. Processes can be used to insure common purpose will more readily exist. During selection, students should be questioned about their motives and aspirations for participating in a program that promotes a learning community. By screening and selecting students who may think differently from others, or behave differently but have similar expectations and commitments, faculty ensure the potential for groups who will be supportive in achieving both their individual and group goals.

Cooperative Learning Activities. Tasks that require the sharing of skills and resources foster the habit of collaboration and mutual support. Group projects such as the development of a group mission, group norms, and behavioral expectations are recommended during the beginning development stage of a learning community to help build the support and cohesiveness which will lead to easier achievement of individual and group needs. "Communities of learners in democratic schools are marked by an emphasis on cooperation and collaboration rather than on competition. People see their stake in others, and arrangements are created that encourage young people to improve life of the community by helping others" (Apple and Beane, 1995 p.11). Deming (1986) suggests that 85 percent of the behavior of members of an organization is directly attributable to the organizational structure, not the nature of the individual. If your classroom organization structure stresses and rewards cooperation, "your students will behave accordingly and a true learning community will result" (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith 1991, p. 1:25)

Reflection

School leaders should use reflective thinking to explore the complexities of schooling by evaluating and challenging existing practices within the school culture (Short and Twale, 1994). Reflecting on one's educational practice is seen as a necessary element for professional growth. The process requires "establishing time for considering one's practice, committing to objectively and occasionally dealing with discomfort, all for the purpose of generating greater self awareness" Hill, (nd, p. 1). Reflection on practice also, "symbolizes the development of a locus of control" (Hill, p. 1) and stimulates a spiral of empowerment by moving students through describing what they presently do to reconstructing their practice for improvement (Smyth, cited in Hill, nd). Whereas Schon (1983) focused his work mainly on reflection of practice by individuals, Starratt (1995) encourages us to remember that "our understanding of leadership and change has deepened to the point where we realize that reflection has to take place with others more often than by oneself" (p. 67). Starratt encourages leaders therefore to invite the whole school community to reflect on what they are doing with the goal of developing a reflective community. The idea of a reflective community is the heart of a learning community.

Programs in educational administration must explore methods to systematically assist students in becoming more reflective both individually and as part of the reflective learning community. In the learning community model, these practices enable students to develop support, build a trusting learning environment, and lead them to further clarify their personal vision or dream.

Practices

Specific practices in developing learning communities that would foster individual and community reflection include some that have already been mentioned such as platforms and journals. Other ideas might include:

Reflective seminars. Weekly or monthly reflective seminars provide opportunities for learners to diagnose, analyze, and reflect on their field-based experiences. During these seminars, students are encouraged to bring real-world experiences and problems to the group. Students are encouraged to "examine relationships, develop insights, and create personal meaning from their experiences" (Barnett and Muse, 1993 p. 405).

Questions and deliberations. Specific questions used to stimulate reflection as part of written assignments or oral discussions can cause students to engage in thoughtful, pragmatic, and imaginative deliberations and to engage in democratic dialogue (Henderson and Hawthorne, 1995). Questions of practice can focus on current happenings or current research, or simply provoke reactions and discussion in

order to help clarify students' thinking. The more students explore meaning through reflection with peers and others, the more they will make sense of their personal experiences (Milstein and Associates, 1993).

Group work. Various sized small group configurations, used to discuss problems of practice, can assist future leaders to grow as they reflect together on what they are doing. Given problems of practice to solve, students in groups learn how to refine collaborative problem-solving skills.

Journals. Journals and logs become vehicles for personal reflection. Facilitators reading and responding to those journals encourage students to reflect again on experiences and their reactions to them.

Adult Learning

Theories of adult learning and development must serve as the foundation for the creation of learning communities in educational administration program. In cohesive groups where learning is problem based and student centered, academic learning is greatly enhanced (Knowles, 1990). Building strong relationships and affiliation is a powerful motivator of adult learning (Beer and Darkenwald, 1989) The curriculum of most learning communities should provide time and structured activities for students to get to know each other well and to develop a respect for and an appreciation of the differences of individual members, factors Knowles (1980) believes are critical to creating productive learning environments. Adult learners like to grow and learn with others, to feel less isolated in their learning, and to count on others as resources in their learning. According to Knowles, adult learners also like to have some control over the content of the learning experiences as well as the community's decision-making processes (Barnett and Muse, 1993). The ability to influence the activities and topics of discussion (Darenwald, 1987), participate in the decision- making process (Ennis, 1989; Knowles, 1980), develop goals, implement activities, and evaluate outcomes (Knowles, 1980) all positively contribute to an adult's sense of ownership and commitment to their learning (Barnett and Muse, 1993).

Practices

Specific practices in developing learning communities which support the needs of adult learners might include:

Get-acquainted activities. Time must be systemically allotted during each class period for students to get to know one another better. These activities might include name card, an activity where one student picks a topic of the day that all students need to talk about in round robin fashion. The goals is self disclosure, and students on a daily or weekly basis learn a little bit more about each other. Another technique is a mini-lab where students in small groups speak on a selected topic without interruption. Another is reflective interviewing where students, working in trios, speak and then receive questions and suggestions from partners.

Social activities outside of class. Students need to be encouraged to meet for coffee, go to plays or dinner, meet each other's families, or even go shopping together to support interaction both socially and professionally. Social directors for the class period can be designated to foster such outings.

Learning Groups. Students can be offered learning activities such as cases, problems, and research projects to work at in pairs or teams in order for them to support and serve as resources to each other. Ownership and responsibility are fostered by students sharing speakers, workshop presenters, and useful written resources they have discovered.

Input into coursework development. "Since democracy involves the informed consent of people, a democratic curriculum emphasizes access to a wide range of information and the right of those of varied opinions to have their viewpoint heard" (Apple and Beane, 1995 p. 13). Students can be given responsibility for developing course outcomes, course requirements, schedules, grading, and other segments of the course structure. In many learning communities, professors set guidelines or parameters for student involvement and learning standards and then allow students to determine the most appropriate strategies or activities to use in achieving those standards. Students can be encouraged to become members of standing committees which make programmatic decisions such as assignments of students to mentors and organization of total-cohort social activities (Barnett and Muse, 1993). These activities give students some control over their own learning as opposed to feeling like the professor is dictating all the requirements.

Teaching responsibilities. Adult learners have a vast experiential base which they like to use in adding relevance to their work. Personal adult life experiences contribute to the learning process and serve as a valuable resource for co-learners (Knowles, 1985). Many of the students have expertise in areas that surpass that of the course instructor. They should be encouraged to share this knowledge with the community, thus building on the shared experiences and mutual support that promote adult growth and development.

Constructivism

Based on the works of Dewey (1938), Piaget (1970) and Vygotsky (1978), the constructivist approach to teaching is an approach based on research about how people learn. Researchers suggest that each individual constructs knowledge rather than receiving it from others. One definition describes constructivism as "active hands-on learning during which students are encouraged to think and explain reasoning" (McBrien & Brandt, 1997). Practices considered constructivist include: teachers seeking and considering students' point of view; lessons orchestrated to challenge students' suppositions; students seeing relevance in the curriculum; lessons planned around big ideas; and

students' learning assessed in the context of the learning environment (Brooks & Grennon, 1999). "Learners control their learning. This simple truth lies at the heart of the constructivist approach to education" (Brooks and Grennon, p.21). Because constructing knowledge requires trial and error, it also requires an environment that encourages and supports risk taking. The power relationship between teachers and learners can change. Constructivism "empowers the learner, all learners. It sees the construction of knowledge as requiring not only individual reflection, but interaction with others" (Wilson, 1993, p. 223). Constructivism is a radically different, albeit not new (Dewey, 1938), approach to thinking about teaching and learning that must prevail if preparation programs are going to be successful in preparing future leaders.

Practices

Specific practices in using constructivist pedagogy in developing learning communities might include:

Choice in reading assignments or projects. Since we all come from different perspectives, how we like to learn, what we like to read, and what types or activities or projects will best suit our learning style become important to our growth. At times there are reasons for common readings and activities, but at other times students ought to be given the freedom to construct their own learnings as the constructivists (Brooks and Grennon,1999) suggest by having a say in what and how they learn.

Problem-based learning activities. Problem-based learning is an approach to learning that had its origin in the field of medicine. At the center of each project is a" problematic situation that students are likely to encounter when they become school leaders" (Bridges and Hallinger, 1997). The process takes problems from the complex realities of school and engages learners in acquiring new knowledge to solve collaboratively the problem. Each project culminates with a product and/or a performance that resembles the way this problem would have been dealt with in the world of practice. "Students do not merely write or talk about what they would do to resolve the problem. Instead, they collectively decide on a course of action, implement their decision, and experience the consequences of their actions"(p. 133).

Authentic assessments. There is far more to assessment than giving students grades. Assessment should be meaningful and authentic (Johnson and Johnson, 1996), measure what was learned as opposed to what was taught, and be based on knowledge and skills that address problems of practice (Tucker and Codding, 1998). Students should be involved in formulating learning goals (Merriam and Cafferella, 1991), choosing paths for achieving those goals, assessing their progress and success (Apple and Beane, 1995), planning how to improve, and implementing their plans. Educational administration programs that assess authentically use such ideas as students journaling about learned material, problem-based learning activities, portfolio demonstrations, case scenarios, solving real-life problems of practice during internships, self assessment of course performance objectives, and student-faculty interviews for grade determination.

Role of the Instructor In Building a Learning Community

Preparation programs designed to prepare tomorrow's leaders will have to employ dramatically different instructional strategies (Murphy, 1990). "Minor modification in current teaching practices will not solve the current problems with college instruction. Teaching success in today's world requires a new approach to instruction" (Johnson, Johnson and Smith, 1991 p.1:29). In a review of five major university programs in educational administration that were trying to improve the preparation of school leaders, Milstein (1993) found that "the delivery of academic content must change in ways that increase the potential for learning" (p. 192). Emerging literature on cohorts or learning communities focuses largely on the effects on students, however, there is some indication of the impact on faculty (Barnett and Muse, 1993; Yerkes, et al., 1994). Paying attention to the needs of adult learners and using new and different methodologies is asking some professors to alter their preferred instructional strategies. Although the debate continues on what is the most appropriate role for instructors, many would argue that rather than being the purveyors of knowledge, expected of their role in the past, instructors need to facilitate learning in others (Merriam and Caffarella, 1991, Murphy, 1992). If instructors are open to student-centered discussions, then students are more willing to share information and will find discussions to be more relevant to their real situations (Barnett and Muse, 1993).

Teaching or facilitating in a learning community requires that instructors use many different approaches. There will always be a place for didactic, teacher-centered learning. Clearly there are times when lectures or demonstrations are appropriate since it remains the purview of instructors to ensure that students are exposed to the knowledge base of educational administration. For the most part, however, a dedication to adult learning theory and the constructivist or recontructionist approach would dictate that students be more involved in the learning than is typically expected in a didactic presentation or the typical university class. A balance of instructional approaches is needed; the "instructional program should stress 'doing' rather than passive listening" (Griffiths, 1977, p. 433).

Facilitators using adult education theory understand that it is important to develop an open learning climate where social interaction is encouraged. An authoritarian tone on the part of the facilitator can stifle interaction, while a supportive climate of respect, openness, and acceptance can facilitate quality interaction (Forsyth, 1990). An important part of the facilitator's role is to allow group members to feel important and worthwhile, have a sense of belonging, and be accepted by other group members (Merriam and Cafferella, 1991). Instruction in educational administration programs needs to become less generic and more personalized (Murphy, 1992).

As part of the process curriculum, facilitators of learning communities have a greater chance of being associated with students outside of formal classroom settings. Since much time is spent on reflective seminars, social gatherings, 'get to know me' activities, and individual conferences, professors come to know students much better than in typical courses. This knowledge allows faculty to better recognize

students' abilities and talents and is helpful in developing individual students as well as recommending them for future administrative positions and assisting in their career decisions. Long-term relationships thus are developed between universities and schools, professors and administrators.

There are also benefits for faculty who get involved in the development of learning communities. As they grapple with the issues, professors begin to operate as their own learning community, growing professionally as new ideas are explored, tested, and revised. Collaboration and sharing, not frequently modeled in higher education programs, become the norm with the potential of leading to stronger professional links with colleagues in the program as well as with colleagues in similar programs at other universities (Milstein and Associates, 1993). Professors also might find themselves more engaged in collaborative research of mutual interest with colleagues in other programs (Yerkes, et al., 1994).

In moving to a focus on the development of learning communities, professors are faced with significant issues such as: course content and sequencing; instructional delivery; relationships between field experience and classes; involvement of practitioners in the program; entrance requirements; course requirements; and assessment (Basom, Yerkes, Norris, & Barnett, 1996). The experience of developing learning communities usually also affects faculty-student interaction. When faculty and students meet regularly for long periods of time, their relationships tend to be more personal than in traditional classes. Better relations between faculty and students can improve mentoring and advising, collaborative research opportunities, and long-term professional links. At times, however, because of the closer relationships that evolve in learning communities, professors and students are often privy to sensitive personal issues such as illnesses, family difficulties, and marital problems. Professors may be unaccustomed to dealing with intense personal issues and feel unqualified to provide the support and counseling, while students may feel uncomfortable with the shift in traditional teacher-student roles (Basom, et al., 1996) However, as Ashby (2000) reminds us, developing learning communities in educational leadership programs requires that "universities model for their students the very practices we promote in K-12 schools"(p. 3).

Summary

The process of using both a process curriculum (how to teach) and a content curriculum (what to teach) develops strong learning communities or cohorts of students. We agree with Milstein (1993) that this process provides "the model of how schools can be transformed into adult learning communities. Cohort members who share in this powerful experience recognize how this unique learning approach can be transferred to the school site. They have experienced empowerment as adult learners and are more aware of the need to practice collaborative leadership as school administrators" (p. 201).

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